



## Parallel Algorithms for Entropy-Coding Techniques\*

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# Parallel Algorithms for Entropy-Coding Techniques <sup>1</sup>

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## Abstract

With the explosion of imaging applications, and due to the massive amounts of imagery data, data compression is essential. Lossless compression, also called entropy coding, is of special importance because it is used not only for compression of text files and medical images, but also as an inherent part of lossy compression. Therefore, fast entropy coding/decoding algorithms are desirable. In this paper we will develop parallel algorithms for several widely used entropy coding techniques, namely, arithmetic coding, run-length encoding (RLE), and Huffman coding. Our parallel arithmetic coding algorithm takes  $O(\log^2 N)$  time on an  $N$ -processor hypercube, where  $N$  is the input size. For RLE, our parallel coding and decoding algorithms take  $O(\log N)$  time on an  $N$ -processors computer. Finally, in the case of Huffman coding, the parallel coding algorithm takes  $O(\log^2 N + n \log n)$ , where  $n$  is the alphabet size,  $n \ll N$ . As for decoding, both arithmetic and Huffman are hard to parallelize. However, special provisions could be made in many applications to make arithmetic and Huffman decoding fairly parallel.

**Keywords:** Arithmetic Coding, Run-Length Encoding, Huffman Coding, Decoding, Parallel Algorithms, Hypercube, Statistics Gathering.

## 1 Introduction

With the explosion of imaging applications, and due to the massive amounts of imagery data, data compression is essential to reduce the storage and transmission requirements of images and videos [14]. Indeed, due to the critical importance of compression, there are several international organizations that develop compression standards. Among the most notable standards are JPEG [11] for still images and MPEG for videos [5].

Compression can be lossless or lossy. Lossless compression, also called entropy coding, allows for perfect reconstruction of the data, whereas lossy compression does not. Even in lossy compression, which is by far more prevalent in image and video compression, entropy coding is needed as a last stage after the data has been transformed and quantized [14, 18]. Therefore, fast entropy coding algorithms are of prime importance, especially in online or even real-time applications such as video teleconferencing.

Parallel algorithms are an obvious choice for fast processing. Therefore, in this paper we will develop parallel algorithms for several widely used entropy coding techniques, namely, arithmetic coding [13], run-length encoding (RLE) [12, 16], and Huffman coding [4]. Our parallel arithmetic coding algorithm takes  $O(\log^2 N)$  time on an  $N$ -processor hypercube, where  $N$  is the input size. The time is dominated by sorting, for otherwise it takes  $O(\log N)$  time. Unfortunately, arithmetic decoding seems to be hard to parallelize because it is a sequential process of essentially logical computations. In practice, however, files are broken down into many substrings before being arithmetic-coded, for precision reasons that will become clear later on. Accordingly, the coded streams of those substrings can be decoded in parallel.

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For RLE, we design parallel algorithms for both encoding and decoding, each taking  $O(\log N)$  time. Finally, in the case of Huffman coding, the algorithm is easily data-parallel; the development of the Huffman tree to determine the codeword of each symbol of the alphabet is the only sequential part, but its time complexity is often insignificant because the alphabet size is typically small — only in the order of tens or at most hundreds of symbols. The statistics gathering for computing symbol probabilities needed for the Huffman tree is parallelized to take  $O(\log^2 N)$  time. Like arithmetic decoding, Huffman decoding is highly sequential. However, in certain applications where the data is inherently broken into many blocks that are processed independently as in JPEG/MPEG, simple provisions can be made to have the bitstreams easily separable into many independent substreams that can be decoded independently in parallel.

It must be noted that other lossless compression techniques are also in use such as Lempel-Ziv [19], bit-plane coding [15], and differential pulse-code modulation (DPCM) [10]. The first two will not be considered here for two reasons. First, they are not usually used in the entropy coding stage of lossy compression. Second, Lempel-Ziv coding seems to be inherently sequential, and bit-plane coding involves essentially RLE and Huffman coding, both of which are covered independently in this paper. The last technique, DPCM, involves the computation of multidimensional recurrence relations, and is the subject of another paper by this author.

The paper is organized as follows. The next section gives a brief description of the various standard parallel operations that will be used in our algorithms. Section 3 develops a parallel algorithm for arithmetic coding. Section 4 develops parallel encoding and decoding algorithms for RLE. Section 5 addresses the parallelization of Huffman coding and decoding. Conclusions and future directions are given in section 6.

## 2 Preliminaries

The parallel algorithms designed in this paper use several standard parallel operations. The following is a list of those operations along with a brief description.

- **Parsort**( $Y[0 : N - 1]; Z[0 : N - 1], \pi[0 : N - 1]$ ): It sorts in parallel the input array  $Y$  into  $Z$ , and records the permutation  $\pi$  that orders  $Y$  to  $Z$ :  $Z[k] = Y[\pi[k]]$ . It uses Batcher's bitonic sorting [2], which takes  $O(\log^2 N)$  time on an  $N$ -processor hypercube. The choice is justified because other practical parallel sorting algorithms are slower, and the  $O(\log N)$  time sorting algorithms [1] are not practical due to their high constant factor.
- $C = \mathbf{Parmult}(A_{0:N-1})$ : It multiplies the  $N$  elements of the array  $A$ , yielding the product  $C$ . In this paper, the elements of  $A$  are  $2 \times 2$  matrices. This operation clearly takes simply  $O(\log N)$  time on  $O(N)$  processors connected as a hypercube [3].
- $A[0, N - 1] = \mathbf{Parprefix}(a_{0:N-1})$ : This is the well-known parallel prefix operation [3, 7, 9]. It computes from the input array  $a$  the array  $A$  where  $A[i] = a[0] + a[1] + \dots + a[i]$ , for all  $i = 0, 1, \dots, N - 1$ . Parallel prefix takes  $O(\log N)$  time on a  $N$ -processor hypercube.
- $A[0 : N - 1] = \mathbf{Barrier-Parprefix}(a[0 : N - 1])$ : This operation assumes that the input array  $a$  is divided into groups of consecutive elements; every group has a *left-barrier* at its start and a *right-barrier* at its end. **Barrier-Parprefix** performs a parallel prefix within each group independently from other groups. It takes  $O(\log N)$  time on an  $N$ -processor hypercube. To see this, let  $f[0 : N - 1]$  be a flag array where  $f[k] = 0$  if  $k$  is a right-barrier, and  $f[k] = 1$ , otherwise. Clearly,  $A[i] = f[i - 1]A[i - 1] + a[i]$  for all  $i$ . The latter is a linear recurrence relation solvable in  $O(\log N)$  time on an  $N$ -processor hypercube [6].



### 3 Parallel Arithmetic Coding

Arithmetic coding [13] relies heavily on the probability distributions of the input files to be coded. Essentially, arithmetic coding maps each input file to a subinterval  $[L R]$  of the unit interval  $[0 1]$  such that the probability of the input file is  $R - L$ . Afterwards, it represents the fraction value  $L$  in  $n$ -ary using  $r = \lceil -\log_n(R - L) \rceil$   $n$ -ary digits, where  $n$  is the size of the alphabet. The stream of those  $r$  digits are taken to be the code of the input file.

The mapping of an input file into a subinterval  $[L R]$  is done progressively by reading the file and updating the  $[L R]$  subinterval to always be the corresponding subinterval of the input substring scanned so far. The update rule works as follows. Assume that the input file is the string  $x[0 : N - 1]$  where every symbol is in the alphabet  $\{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}\}$ , and that the substring  $x[0 : k - 1]$  has been processed, i.e., mapped to interval  $[L R]$ . Let  $P_{ki}$  be the probability that the next symbol is  $a_i$  given that the previous symbols are  $x[0 : k - 1]$ . Divide the current interval  $[L R]$  into  $n$  successive subintervals where the  $i$ -th subinterval is of length  $P_{ki}(R - L)$  for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, n - 1$ , that is, the  $i$ -th subinterval is  $[L_i R_i]$  where  $L_i = (P_{k0} + P_{k1} + \dots + P_{k,i-1})(R - L)$  and  $R_i = L_i + P_{ki}(R - L)$ . Finally, if the next symbol in the input file is  $a_{i_0}$  for some  $i_0$ , the update is  $L = L_{i_0}$  and  $R = R_{i_0}$ . The last value of the interval  $[L R]$  after the whole input string has been processed is the desired subinterval.

The alphabet  $\{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}\}$  can be arbitrary. Some of the typical alphabets are the binary alphabet  $\{0, 1\}$  for binary input files, the ascii alphabet, and any finite set of real numbers or integers as may occur in run-length encoding. In the last category, the alphabet  $\{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}\}$  can be easily mapped to the more convenient alphabet  $\{0, 1, \dots, n - 1\}$ . That mapping is applied at the outset before arithmetic coding starts, and the inverse mapping is applied after arithmetic decoding is completed. Henceforth, we will assume the alphabet to be  $\{0, 1, \dots, n - 1\}$ .

The conditional probabilities  $\{P_{ki}\}$  are either computed statistically from the input file or derived from an assumed theoretical probabilistic model about the input files. Naturally, the statistical method is the one used most often, and will be assumed here. The structure of the probabilistic model is, however, still useful in knowing what statistical data should be gathered. The model often used is the Markov model of a certain order  $m$ , where  $m$  tends to be fairly small, in the order of 1-5. That is, the probability that the next symbol is of some value  $a$  depends on only the values of the previous  $m$  symbols. Therefore, to determine statistically the probability that the next symbol is  $a$  given that the previous  $m$  symbols are some  $b_1 b_2 \dots b_m$ , it suffices to compute the frequency of occurrences of the substring  $b_1 b_2 \dots b_m a$  in the input string, and normalize that frequency by  $N$ , which is the total number of substrings of length  $m + 1$  symbols in the zero-padded input string. The padding of  $m$  0's to the left of  $x$  is taken to simplify the statistics gathering at the left boundary of  $x$ : assume that the imaginary symbols  $x[-m : -1]$  are all 0.

To summarize, the sequential algorithm for computing the statistical probabilities and performing arithmetic coding is presented next.

**Algorithm** Arithmetic-coding(input:  $x[0 : N - 1]$ ; output:  $B$ )

**begin** /\* The alphabet is assumed to be known, say  $\{0, 1, \dots, n - 1\}$  \*/

Phase I: Statistics Gathering

**for**  $k = 0$  **to**  $N - 1$  **do** /\* compute the probabilities  $\{P_{ki}\}$ 's which are initialized to 0 \*/  
    compute the frequency  $f_k$  of the substring  $x[k - m : k]$  in the whole string  $x$ ;  
    set  $Q_k = f_k / N$ ;  
    let  $i = x[k]$ , and set  $P_{ki} = Q_k$ ;



```

endfor
for  $k = 0$  to  $N - 1$  do /* compute the probabilities  $\{P_k\}$ 's which are initialized to 0 */
    Let  $i = x[k]$ , and set  $P_k = P_{k0} + P_{k1} + \dots + P_{k,i-1}$ ;
endfor

```

Phase II: finding the interval  $[L \ R]$  corresponding to the string  $x$

Initialize:  $L = 0$  and  $R = 1$ ;

```

for  $k = 0$  to  $N - 1$  do

```

```

     $D = R - L$ ;

```

```

     $L = L + P_k D$ ;

```

```

     $R = L + Q_k D$ ;

```

```

endfor

```

Phase III: computing the output stream  $B$  as a code for the input string  $x$

```

 $r = \lceil -\log_n(R - L) \rceil$ ;

```

Take the  $n$ -ary representation of  $L = 0.L_1L_2\dots L_r\dots$ ;

```

 $B = [L_1 \ L_2 \ \dots \ L_r]$ ;

```

```

end

```

To parallelize the Arithmetic-coding algorithm, the first two phases have to be parallelized. Note that in Phase III,  $L$  is naturally represented in binary inside the computer, so phase III is nothing more than chopping off the first  $\lceil r \log n \rceil$  bits of the binary representation of  $L$ .

## Parallelization of Phase I: Statistics Gathering

Each substring  $x[k - m : k]$  is treated as an  $(m + 1)$ -tuple of integer components, for  $k = 0, 2, \dots, N - 1$ ; those  $N$  tuples are denoted as an array  $Y[0 : N - 1]$ . Denote the  $m + 1$  components of  $Y[k]$  as  $(Y_m[k], \dots, Y_1[k], Y_0[k])$ , that is,  $Y_0[k] = x[k]$ ,  $Y_1[k] = x[k - 1]$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $Y_m[k] = x[k - m]$ . Sort  $Y$  into  $Z$  using **ParSort**( $Y; Z, \pi$ ), where  $Z[k] = Y[\pi[k]]$ . Clearly, all identical tuples are consecutive in  $Z$ . Associate  $Q_{\pi[k]}$  and  $P_{\pi[k], Z_0[k]}$  with tuple  $Z[k] = Y[\pi[k]]$ .

We will divide  $Z$  into segments and supersegments. A *segment* is any maximal subarray of identical consecutive elements of  $Z$ . A *supersegment* is a maximal set of consecutive segments where the tuple values differ in at most the rightmost component. The probabilities  $Q_k$ 's and  $P_{k, x[k]}$ 's are then computed as follows:

**Procedure** Compute-probs(**input**:  $Z[0 : N - 1], \pi[0 : N - 1]$ ; **output**:  $Q_k$ 's,  $P_{k, x[k]}$ 's)

**begin**

1. Put a left-barrier and a right-barrier at the beginning and at the end of every segment, respectively. It can be done in the following way. First, put a left barrier at  $k = 0$  and a right barrier at  $k = N - 1$ . Afterwards, do

```

for  $k = 0$  to  $N - 2$  pardo

```

```

    if  $Z[k] < Z[k + 1]$ , put a right barrier at  $k$  and a left barrier at  $k + 1$ .

```

```

endfor

```

2. Let  $g[0 : N - 1]$  be an integer array where every term is initialized to 1;

3.  $G[0 : N - 1] = \mathbf{Barrier-Parprefix}(g)$ .

Clearly, if  $k$  corresponds to a right barrier of a segment, then  $G[k]$  is the number of terms of that segment, that is,  $G[k]$  is the frequency of  $Z[k] = Y[\pi[k]]$ .



4. Broadcast within each segment the  $G[k]$  of the segment's right barrier, and then set in parallel every  $G[i]$  term in the segment to  $G[k]$ .
5. **for**  $k = 0$  **to**  $N - 1$  **pardo**  
     set  $Q_{\pi[k]} = G[k]/N$  and  $P_{\pi[k], Y_0[\pi[k]]} = G[k]/N$ .  
   **endfor**

**end**

Observe that the  $Q_{\pi[k]}$ 's within any one single segment, and therefore the  $P_{\pi[k], Y_0[\pi[k]]}$ 's within any segment, are all equal. We call  $Q_{\pi[k]}$  (or  $P_{\pi[k], Y_0[\pi[k]]}$ ) the probability of that segment. Observe also that the cumulative probability  $P_k$ , which is defined as  $P_{k0} + P_{k1} + \dots + P_{k, x[k]-1}$ , is the sum of probabilities of all tuples where the  $m$  leftmost symbols are equal to  $x[k-m : k-1]$  and where the rightmost symbol is  $\leq x[k] - 1$ . Stated otherwise,  $P_{\pi[k]}$  is the sum of the probabilities of all the segments within the supersegment containing  $k$  such that the  $m$  leftmost symbols are equal to those of  $Y[\pi[k]]$  and the rightmost symbol is  $\leq x[\pi[k]] - 1$ . The following procedure will compute those cumulative probabilities  $P_k$ 's.

**Procedure** Compute-cumprobs(**input**:  $Z, \pi, Q_k$ 's,  $P_{ki}$ 's; **output**:  $P_k$ 's)  
**begin**

1. Put a left-barrier and a right-barrier at the beginning and at the end of every supersegment, respectively, as follows. For each  $k$ , denote by  $Z'[k]$  the  $m$ -tuple consisting of the  $m$  leftmost components of  $Z[k]$ , that is,  $Z'[k]$  is all but the rightmost component of  $Z[k]$ . Put a left barrier at  $k = 0$  and a right barrier at  $k = N - 1$ . Afterwards, do  
   **for**  $k = 0$  **to**  $N - 2$  **pardo**  
     if  $Z'[k] < Z'[k + 1]$ , put a right barrier at  $k$  and a left barrier at  $k + 1$ .  
   **endfor**
2. Let  $h[0 : N - 1]$  be a real array where every term is initialized to 0; for each  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N - 1$ ,  $h[k]$  is associated with  $Z[k]$ .  
   **for**  $k = 0$  **to**  $N - 1$  **pardo**  
     if  $k$  happens to be the start of a segment (rather than a supersegment), then  
     set  $h[k] = P_{\pi[k], Z_0[k]}$ .  
   **endfor**
3.  $H[0 : N - 1] = \text{Barrier-Parprefix}(h)$ , using the supersegment barriers.  
   It can be easily shown that  $H[k]$  is the sum of the probabilities of all the segments within the supersegment containing  $k$  such that the  $m$  leftmost symbols are equal to those of  $Y[\pi[k]]$  and the rightmost symbol is  $\leq x[\pi[k]]$ . After the discussion above,  $H[k] = P_{\pi[k]} + Q_{\pi[k]}$ . This justifies the next step.
4. **for**  $k = 0$  **to**  $N - 1$  **pardo**  
      $P_{\pi[k]} = H[k] - Q_{\pi[k]}$ .  
   **endfor**

**end**

## Time Analysis of Phase I

For each  $k$ , assume that  $x[k]$ ,  $Y[k]$  and  $Z[k]$  will be hosted by processor  $k$ . The gathering of  $x[k-m : k]$  to processor  $k$  to form  $Y[k]$  requires  $m$  shifts that send data from node  $i$  to node  $i + 1$  for all  $i$ . Each shift takes  $O(\log N)$  communication time on an  $N$ -processor hypercube.



Therefore, the forming of  $Y$  takes  $O(m \log N) = O(\log N)$  communication time for the  $m$  shifts. The reason  $m$  was dropped from the time formula is because  $m$  is fairly small, in the order of 1 – 5 usually, and thus is assumed to be a constant.

**Parsort** takes  $O(\log^2 N)$  time on an  $N$ -processor hypercube. Because of the special suitability of hypercubes for bitonic sorting, the architecture for arithmetic coding will be assumed to be an  $N$ -processor hypercube.

Procedure **Compute-probs** will be shown to take  $O(\log N)$  time. Step 1 involves an exchange of the values  $Z[k]$  and  $Z[k + 1]$  between processors  $k$  and  $k + 1$ , for all  $k$ . This is accomplished by two shifts: one from  $k$  to  $k + 1$  and the other from  $k + 1$  to  $k$ , for all  $k$ . Thus, this step takes  $O(\log N)$  time. Step 2 takes  $O(1)$  time. Step 3, **Barrier-Parprefix**, takes  $O(\log N)$  time. Step 4, being several independent broadcasts within nonoverlapping portions of the hypercube, also takes  $O(\log N)$  time. Finally, step 5 takes  $O(1)$  time because it is a simple parallel step. This establishes that the whole procedure takes  $O(\log N)$  parallel time.

The analysis of the procedure **Compute-cumprobs** is very similar, and shows that it takes  $O(\log N)$  parallel time as well.

It must be noted that after executing the last two procedures, the probabilities  $P_k$  and  $Q_k$  are to be sent to processor  $k$ , for each  $k = 0, 1, \dots, N - 1$ . At present,  $P_{\pi[k]}$  and  $Q_{\pi[\pi[k}]$  are in processor  $k$  along with  $Z[k]$ . Therefore, for all  $k$ , processor  $k$  sends  $P_{\pi[k]}$  and  $Q_{\pi[\pi[k}]$  to processor  $\pi[k]$ . That is, this communication step is just a permutation routing of  $\pi$ . If routed using Valiant's randomized routing algorithm [17], it will take  $O(\log N)$  communication time with overwhelming probability. Otherwise,  $\pi$  can be routed by bitonic sorting of its destinations, taking  $O(\log^2 N)$  time.

In conclusion, the statistics gathering process takes  $O(\log^2 N)$  parallel time for both communication and computation. It remains to parallelize Phase II of arithmetic coding.

## Parallelization of Phase II: the Computation of $[L \ R]$

It will be shown that the computation of the interval  $[L \ R]$  is the product of  $N$   $2 \times 2$  matrices formed from the probabilities  $P_k$  and  $Q_k$ . Afterwards, we can use the parallel operation **Parmult** to multiply the  $N$  matrices in  $O(\log N)$  time on  $N$  processors.

Let the updated values of  $L$  and  $R$  at iteration  $k$  of the for-loop of Phase II of the algorithm 'Arithmetic-coding' be denoted  $L_k$  and  $R_k$ , respectively. Clearly,  $L_k = L_{k-1} + P_k(R_{k-1} - L_{k-1}) = (1 - P_k)L_{k-1} + P_k R_{k-1}$ , and  $R_k = L_k + Q_k(R_{k-1} - L_{k-1}) = (1 - P_k)L_{k-1} + P_k R_{k-1} + Q_k(R_{k-1} - L_{k-1}) = (1 - P_k - Q_k)L_{k-1} + (P_k + Q_k)R_{k-1}$ . In summary, we have

$$L_k = (1 - P_k)L_{k-1} + P_k R_{k-1} \quad \text{and} \quad R_k = (1 - P_k - Q_k)L_{k-1} + (P_k + Q_k)R_{k-1}. \quad (1)$$

Letting

$$X_k = \begin{bmatrix} L_k \\ R_k \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad A_k = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - P_k & P_k \\ 1 - P_k - Q_k & P_k + Q_k \end{bmatrix}, \quad (2)$$

equation 1 becomes a simple vector recurrence relation of order 1:

$$X_k = A_k X_{k-1}. \quad (3)$$

The last equation implies that the last subinterval  $[L \ R] = [L_{N-1} \ R_{N-1}]$  that is being sought, which corresponds to  $X_{N-1}$ , is  $X_{N-1} = A_{N-1} A_{N-2} \cdots A_0 X_{-1}$ , or equivalently,

$$\begin{bmatrix} L_{N-1} \\ R_{N-1} \end{bmatrix} = A_{N-1} A_{N-2} \cdots A_0 \begin{bmatrix} L_{-1} \\ R_{-1} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (4)$$



Since  $X_{-1} = [L_{-1} R_{-1}]^t = [0 \ 1]^t$ , it follows that  $[L_{N-1} R_{N-1}]^t$  is the right column of the product matrix  $A_{N-1}A_{N-2}\cdots A_0$ . That product is clearly computable with the parallel operation **Parmult**( $A_{N-1:0}$ ), taking  $O(\log N)$  time on  $N$  processors, as indicated in section 2. The whole parallel algorithm for arithmetic coding can now be put together as follows.

**Algorithm** Parallel-arithmetic-coding(**input**:  $x[0 : N - 1]$ ; **output**:  $B$ )

**begin**

Form the array  $Y[0 : N - 1]$  of tuples;

**Parsort**( $Y; Z, \pi$ );

Compute-probs( $Z, \pi; Q_k$ 's,  $P_{k,x[k]}$ 's);

Compute-cumprobs( $Z, \pi, Q_k$ 's,  $P_{k,x[k]}$ 's;  $P_k$ 's);

Route permutation  $\pi$  to send  $P_{\pi[k]}$  and  $Q_{\pi[k]}$  from processor  $k$  to processor  $\pi(k)$ , for all  $k$ ;

**for**  $k = 0$  **to**  $N - 1$  **pardo**

$$A_k = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - P_k & P_k \\ 1 - P_k - Q_k & P_k + Q_k \end{bmatrix};$$

**endfor**

$C = \mathbf{Parmult}(A_{N-1:0})$ ;

$L = C(1, 2)$ ;  $R = C(2, 2)$ ;

$r = \lceil -\log_n(R - L) \rceil$ ;

Take the  $n$ -ary representation of  $L = 0.L_1L_2\dots L_r\dots$ ;

$B = [L_1 \ L_2 \ \dots \ L_r]$ ;

**end**

**Time of the whole algorithm:** Based on the preceding time analyses, the overall parallel time of the algorithm is  $O(\log^2 N)$  on an  $N$ -processor hypercube. Indeed, the parallel sorting is what dominates the time, for otherwise, the algorithm takes  $O(\log N)$  time.

## Arithmetic Decoding

Arithmetic decoding, which reconstructs the string  $x$  from the stream  $B$  and the probabilities, is much harder to parallelize. It works as follows. The interval  $[L \ R]$  is narrowed down progressively as in coding, where the initial value is  $[0 \ 1]$ . The final interval, call it  $[L_f, R_f]$ , is known at decoding time from the stream  $B$ :  $D = n^r$  where  $r$  is the length of the stream  $B$ ,  $L_f = (\text{stream } B \text{ as an } n\text{-ary number})/n^r$ , and  $R_f = L_f + D$ . To figure out the next symbol in the file, using the next  $n$ -ary digit  $B[i]$ , the current interval  $[L \ R]$  is divided into  $n$  subintervals as in coding, one subinterval per alphabet symbol; afterwards, decode  $B[i]$  as alphabet symbol  $a_j$  if  $[L_f \ R_f]$  is contained within the  $j$ -th subinterval. Thus, the recurrence relation for the decoded symbols involves essentially positional rather than numerical computations, making it hard to parallelize its computation.

In practice, however, arithmetic coding is applied in a way that allows for some decoding parallelism. Because of accuracy problems, if the input string size  $N$  is fairly large, the intermediary intervals  $[L \ R]$  become too small for the precision afforded by most computers. Therefore, long input files are broken into several blocks of lengths that do not lead to serious underflow problems; those blocks are arithmetic-coded independently, except perhaps in the statistics gathering, which involves the whole file to reduce the probability model information overhead to be included in the header of the stream  $B$ . Accordingly, the streams of those blocks can be decoded independently **in parallel**. The actual details are not included here, and will vary from application to application, although the principle is the same.



## 4 Parallel Run-Length Encoding

Run-length encoding (RLE) [12, 16] applies with good performance when the input string  $x[0 : N - 1]$  consists of a relatively short sequence of runs (say  $r$  runs,  $r \ll N$ ), where a run is a substring of consecutive symbols of equal value. RLE converts  $x$  into a sequence of pairs  $(L_0, V_0), (L_1, V_1), \dots, (L_{r-1}, V_{r-1})$ , where  $L_i$  is the length of the  $i$ -th run, and  $V_i$  is the value of the recurring symbol of that run.

Often, there is considerable redundancy in the values of the  $L_i$ 's and the  $V_i$ 's, and certain  $L_i$  (or  $V_i$ ) values occur more frequently than others. In that case, Huffman coding [4] is applied to code the  $L_i$ 's and/or the  $V_i$ 's. Parallelizing Huffman coding is the subject of the next section. However, in the parallel RLE algorithm, we will put the data in the right form and locations.

The parallel RLE algorithm coincides with the first 3 steps of the algorithm 'Compute-probs' that was developed earlier for arithmetic coding. The segments there correspond to runs in RLE. After those steps execute, each right barrier of a segment has the  $L$  and  $V$  of its run. Afterwards, the scattered  $(L, V)$  pairs should be gathered to the first  $r$  processors in the system, in case further processing is needed, as for example Huffman coding the  $L_i$ 's and the  $V_i$ 's. The parallel algorithm for RLE can now be given as follows.

**Algorithm Parallel-RLE(input:  $x[0 : N - 1]$ ; output:  $L, V$ )**

**begin**

1. Put a left-barrier at  $k = 0$  of  $x$ , and a right-barrier at  $k = N - 1$ ;
2. **for**  $k = 0$  **to**  $N - 2$  **pardo** /\* put barriers around the runs of  $x$  \*/
3. if  $x[k] \neq x[k + 1]$ , then put a left-barrier at  $k$  and a right-barrier at  $k + 1$ ;  
**endfor**
  
4. Let  $g[0 : N - 1]$  be an integer array where every term is initialized to 1;
5.  $G[0 : N - 1] = \text{Barrier-Parprefix}(g)$ ;  
/\* if  $k$  is a right-barrier,  $G[k]$  is the length of the corresponding run \*/
  
6. Let  $h[0 : N - 1]$  be an integer array initialized to 0;
7. **for**  $k = 0$  **to**  $N - 1$  **pardo**
8. if  $k$  is a right-barrier, set  $h[k] = 1$ ;  
**endfor**
9.  $H[0 : N - 1] = \text{Barrier-Parprefix}(h)$ ;  
/\* when  $k$  is a right-barrier and  $i = H[k] - 1$ , the corresponding run is the  $i$ -th run of  $x^*$  \*/
  
10. **for**  $k = 0$  **to**  $N - 1$  **pardo**
11. if  $k$  is a right-barrier **then**
12.  $i = H[k] - 1$ ;  $L_i = G[k]$ ;  $V_i = x[k]$ ;
13. Processor  $k$  sends  $(L_i, V_i)$  to processor  $i$ ;  
**endif**
- endfor**
- end**



## Time Analysis of Parallel-RLE

The system is assumed to be an  $N$ -processor hypercube.

Steps 1-3 and 7-8 for barrier setting, as well as steps 4 and 6, take  $O(1)$  parallel time. Steps 5 and 9, being **Barrier-Parprefix**, take  $O(\log N)$  time. The computation in steps 10-12 takes  $O(1)$  time, while the communication in those steps, which is a partial-permutation routing, takes  $O(\log N)$  time using Valiant's randomized routing algorithm. Therefore, the whole algorithm takes  $O(\log N)$  time.

## Parallel Run-length Decoding

To perform run-length decoding (RLD), we start from the  $(L_i, V_i)$ 's as input, where  $(L_i, V_i)$  is in processor  $i$ , for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, r - 1$ . RLD reconstructs the original string  $x$ , where the first  $L_0$  symbols are all  $V_0$ , the next  $L_1$  symbols are all  $V_1$ , and so on. The algorithm determines the start and end locations of each run. Run 0 starts at location 0 and ends at location  $L_0 - 1$ , run 1 starts at location  $L_0$  and ends at location  $L_0 + L_1 - 1$ , and generally, run  $i$  starts at location  $S[i - 1] = L_0 + L_1 + \dots + L_{i-1}$  and ends at location  $L_0 + L_1 + \dots + L_{i-1} + L_i - 1$ . All those prefix sums of  $L$  are computed with **Parprefix**( $L$ ) in  $O(\log r)$  time on  $r$  processors. Afterwards, for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, r - 1$ , processor  $i$  must send  $(L_i, V_i)$  to processor  $L_0 + L_1 + \dots + L_{i-1}$ ; the sending of those  $r - 1$  messages is a partial-permutation routing that takes  $O(\log N)$  time on the hypercube. Finally, those recipients of the  $(L_i, V_i)$ 's, including processor 0 which has  $(L_0, V_0)$ , broadcast their value  $V_i$  to the next  $L_i - 1$  processors, completing the decoding. Those  $r$  broadcasts run in nonoverlapping parts of the hypercube, taking  $O(\max\{\log L_i\}) = O(\log N)$  time, and thus the whole algorithm, summarized below, takes  $O(\log N)$  time.

**Algorithm** Parallel-RLD(input:  $L_{0:r-1}, V_{0:r-1}$ ; output:  $x$  )

**begin**

$S[0, r - 1] = \mathbf{Parprefix}(L_{0:r-1});$       /\*  $S[i], L_i$ , and  $V_i$  are in processor  $i$  \*/

**for**  $i = 1$  **to**  $r - 1$  **pardo**

    Processor  $i$  sends  $(L_i, V_i)$  to processor  $S[i - 1]$ ;

**endfor**

**for**  $i = 0$  **to**  $r - 1$  **pardo**

    Processor  $s = S[i - 1]$  broadcasts  $V_i$  to processors  $s + 1, s + 2, \dots, s + L_i - 1$ ;

**for**  $j = S[i - 1]$  **to**  $S[i - 1] + L_i - 1$  **pardo**

        Processor  $j$  sets  $x[j] = V_i$ ;

**endfor**

**endfor**

**end**

## 5 Parallel Huffman Coding

In Huffman coding the individual symbols of the alphabet are coded in binary using the frequencies (or probabilities) of occurrences of the symbols, such that no symbol code is the prefix of another symbol code. Afterwards, the input file (or string  $x[0 : N - 1]$ ) is coded by replacing each symbol  $x[i]$  by its code.

The Huffman coding algorithm for coding the alphabet is a greedy algorithm and works



as follows. Suppose that the alphabet is  $\{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}\}$ , and let  $p_i$  be the probability of occurrence of symbol  $a_i$ , for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$ . A Huffman binary tree is built by the algorithm. First, a node is created for each alphabet symbol; afterwards, the algorithm repeatedly selects two unparented nodes of smallest probabilities, creates a new parent node for them, and makes the probability of the new node to be the sum of the probabilities of its two children. Once the root is created, the edges of the tree are labeled, left edges with 0, right edges with 1. Finally, each symbol is coded with the binary sequence that labels the path from the root to the leaf node of that symbol. By creating a min-heap for the original leaves (according to the probabilities), the repeated insertions and deletions on the heap will take  $O(n \log n)$  time. The labeling of the tree and extractions of the leaf codes take  $O(n \log n)$  time as well. Therefore, the whole algorithm for alphabet coding takes  $O(n \log n)$  time. Considering that the alphabet tends to be very small in size, and independent of the — much larger — size of the input files to be coded, the  $O(n \log n)$  is relatively very small, and can be even treated as constant when measuring the time of coding the whole input file.

What should not be considered constant is the time for statistics gathering, i.e., for computing the probabilities  $p_i$ 's. This process is parallelizable as was done in the previous two sections: sort the input string in parallel using **Parsort**, then use **Barrier-Parprefix** to compute the frequencies of the distinct symbols in the input string. Those frequencies are then divided by  $N$  to obtain the probabilities, although this step is unnecessary since Huffman coding would give the same results if it uses frequencies instead of probabilities. The statistics gathering process clearly takes  $O(\log^2 N)$  parallel time.

Once the symbol codes have been determined, each symbol  $x[i]$  is replaced by its code, and all symbols are so processed in parallel. The concatenation of all the symbol codes is the output bitstream. This code replacement process takes  $O(1)$  parallel time, since the length of each symbol code is  $\leq n$  and is thus a constant. In summary, the total time of Huffman coding an input file of  $N$  symbols is  $O(n \log n + \log^2 N)$ .

Huffman decoding works as follows, assuming that the Huffman tree is available. The bitstream is scanned from left to right. When a bit is scanned, we traverse the Huffman tree one step down, left if the bit is 0, right if the bit is 1. Once a leaf is encountered, the scanned substring that led from the root to the leaf is replaced (decoded) by the symbol of that leaf. The process is repeated by resetting the traversal to start from the root, while the scanning continues from where it left off. Clearly, this decoding process is very hard to parallelize, and it may be inherently sequential. No attempt is made here to prove that.

One approach can be followed to bring some parallelism into Huffman decoding. In many applications and compression standards such as JPEG, MPEG2, and the upcoming MPEG4, the data is divided into blocks at some stage in the compression process, and the blocks are quantized then entropy-coded independently of one another. The bitstreams of those blocks are then concatenated into a single bit stream according to some static ordering scheme of the blocks. A special End-of-Block (EOB) symbol is added to the alphabet and entropy-coded like other symbols; the EOB symbol tells the decoder when a block ends and the next begins. If parallelization is needed, the bitstreams of the various blocks should NOT be concatenated into one single stream. Rather, they should be formed into as many separate streams as there are processors to be used for decoding. That way, the separate streams can be decoded independently in parallel. By making the many streams to be of roughly equal length, the decoding processes could be load balanced, leading to nearly optimal parallel decoding. The details of that approach, and the actual structure of the file that contains the separate bitstreams, are left to future work.



## 6 Conclusions

In this paper we developed parallel algorithms for several widely used entropy coding techniques, namely, arithmetic coding, run-length encoding, and Huffman coding. In all three, the coding turned out to be parallelizable, taking mainly  $O(\log N)$  time on  $N$  processors, except in the cases where sorting was used for statistics gathering, requiring  $O(\log^2 N)$  time. Decoding, however, turned out to be much harder to parallelize, except in the RLE case which is logarithmic in time. In practice, however, both arithmetic and Huffman coding are used in such a way that allows for simple parallel decoding. The details of parallelizing Huffman decoding and arithmetic decoding, and the performance of those algorithms, are the subject of further research.

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